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ABSTRACT

Content analysis of two classes of professional periodicals that appeared between 1886 and 1917 provides a comprehensive picture of the evolution of teaching methods in English. Designed specifically to aid the classroom teacher, device journals presented teaching methods or actual lessons with few explanations of the theories underlying practice. Devoted to the study of larger educational issues, general journals offered a detailed picture of both the confusion and the controversies involved in the emergence of English as a major subject in secondary education. These journals explained or debated, rather than simply presented, classroom practices. Although the purposes and content of these two types of journals differed, both addressed the needs of secondary schools' developing English curriculum. (MM)

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Before English Journal There was "English Journalism":

A Study of Methods of Teaching English Presented in Educational Periodicals From 1886 to 1917

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Before English Journal There was "English Journalism":

A Study of Methods of Teaching English Presented in Educational Periodicals From 1886 to 1917

Abstract. In order to provide a more accurate and comprehensive description of the evolution of methods of teaching English, this study examined the articles in two classes of professional periodicals that appeared between 1886 to 1917. Discussions of methods of teaching English in general journals (those devoted to the study of educational issues) and device journals (those specificially designed to aid the classroom teacher) were subjected to content analysis. Although the purposes and content of the journals in these two categories differ, both provide information about the way English was taught in American secondary schools at this time. A systematic description of the methods they prescribed provides current researchers with detailed information about the beginnings of the teaching of English.

Introduction

> We have talked about our course in English so much that we have almost persuaded ourselves that we have one, but after searching for it in vain through many cubic feet of school reports, one may be pardoned for coming to the same conclusions as did Alice in Wonderland when she told the unicorn, "But I can't believe in you, because you are a fabulous monster." (Tappan, 1899, p. 40)

This "fabulous monster," the school subject of English, evolved from a minor to a major position in secondary school curriculum in the 1800s when the NEA Committee of Ten Report recommended that English "be pursued in the high school for five

hours a week during the entire course of four years." (p. 90) In 1886 English was not listed as a school subject by the Office of Education, but by 1917 it claimed an enrollment of nearly 60 percent of the high school students, and teachers of English had their own professional organization and nationally circulated journal. During this twenty-nine-year period the number of public high school students increased sevenfold, the number of graduates increased sixfold, and the number of secondary teachers quadrupled. (Bureau of Census, 1960, pp. 207-10)

Those graduating from normal schools filled only a small percentage of the quickly multiplying vacancies, so the majority of secondary teachers were not formally trained. The classroom teacher was faced with defining the emerging subject matter of English while standing in front of a classroom of students. One of the most accessible resources for teachers looking for help was the educational press. Administrators subscribed to journals which included philosophic discussions of educational issues--general journals like The Academy and School Review, but teachers sought out more practical journals containing lesson plans and classroom advice--device journals like Popular Educator and Practical Teacher.

The organization and description of the methods appearing in these journals provides a view of the most accessible material available to teachers of English between the time of the formal definition of English as a subject matter (NEA's Committee of Ten Report, 1893) and the publication of the first national journal for English teachers (English Journal, 1912).

Related Work

The most comprehensive history of the teaching of English was published in 1974. In Tradition and Reform in the Teaching of English, Arthur Applebee acknowledged earlier work (e.g. Stout, 1921; Stahl, 1960, 1965) as "useful beginnings" but set out to resolve the problem of there having been "very little systematic exploration of the history of teaching English."(p. xi) A series of less comprehensive studies have examined the general nature of English during this period (Piche, 1967; Beckman, 1958; Mason, 1962; Flanigan, 1969; Fay, 1968). Eight more limited studies trace the development of specific content areas (Judy, 1967; Barnhardt, 1963; Neel, 1954; Mersand, 1960; Bernd, 1957; Holman, 1945; Kantor, 1975; Grommon, 1968). Three other studies recount the emergence of national English teaching organizations (Zielonka, 1964; Hook, 1979; Mason, 1962).

Only one of these studies specifically explores the contents of professional periodicals. A chapter in Flanigan's "An Extension of the Tradition of English in Secondary Schools" (1969) is spent on an overview of periodical literature from 1877 to 1902. He cites articles from the general educational journals and popular magazines in a review to provide background for his primary discussion of the contents of methods textbooks. Other studies refer briefly to the value and contents of educational periodicals, but similarly cite articles in general rather than device journals, and use such articles only to support or substantiate information drawn from other sources. (e.g. Judy, 1967, p. 38; Grommon, 1968, p. 484-85)

With the publication of English Journal in 1912, it becomes easier to use periodical literature to trace issues, trends, and methods of teaching English because this nationally circulated journal could be characterized as "the voice of the profession." Thomas Ryan's analysis of attitudes toward mass media (1971) and Dorothy Moulton's investigation of trends in teaching literature (1969) use English Journal in this manner. By documenting and describing journal articles on the teaching of English that appeared before the first issue of English Journal, this study provides specific information on early teaching methodology that can be used by future researchers for background information or to aid in longitudinal trend analysis.

In order to provide a context for the period under examination, this study included material published between 1886 (when The Academy, the first major educational journal for secondary educators, was published), and 1917 (when the influential report of the Committee on the Reorganization of English was published).

Identification of Sample

With the boon in the publication of device journals in the late 1800s, an editorial war ensued between them and the general journals--each side claiming the other as ill-conceived and irrelevent. (Davis, 1919, pp. 19-20) In a sense, both sides won. While the general journals can be easily found today in bound volumes in libraries across the country, device journals accounted for 75 percent of the total circulation of all educational periodicals by the end of the 1800s. (Davis, 1919,

pp. 78-9) Due to the circumstances of this period in history, teachers of the period turned to just such journals in order to get help in teaching. By 1905 device journals reached, on the average, 30,000 more subscribers per issue than did the general journals. Since secondary teachers charged with teaching English everyday to every student didn't have their own professional journal until 1912, the circulation statistics suggest they relied upon the articles in the device journals to assist them; the history of the teaching of English is incomplete without an account of their contents.

Frank Luther Mott's History of American Magazines, Davis's Educational Periodicals, Rowell's American Newspaper Directory, and Ayer's American Newspaper Annual and Directory were used to identify the titles of educational periodicals for possible inclusion in the study. 147 titles were determined to constitute the population. Each of the periodicals was then categorized as either "general" (philosophic, didactic, with limited circulation) or "device" (practical, specific, with extensive circulation). The sample set aside for study was determined by applying three critieria: (1) the periodical must have been in existence for a minimum of five years between 1886 and 1917 in order to eliminate minor tendencies and allow for stabilization of content and circulation (Davis, 1919, p. 76); (2) that it be categorized as either a general or device journal by three of the designated major primary and/or secondary sources; (3) that it represent the major circulation characteristics of its category. The application of criteria 1 and 2 eliminated short-lived

periodicals, specialty journals, and state journals; criterion 3 was used to guard against the possibility of excluding mass-circulated device journals.

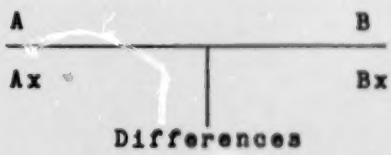
The following periodicals emerged as subjects for study: (1) general journals--(a) the School Review chain (including Academy, School and College, and School Review), (b) Education, (c) Educational Review, (d) Journal of Education, (e) Journal of Pedagogy, and (f) Pedagogical Seminary; (2) device journals--(a) the Normal Instructor chain (including Teachers World and Normal Instructor), (b) Popular Educator, (c) the Public-School Journal chain (including Illinois School Journal, Public-School Journal, and School and Home Education, and (d) the School and Society chain (including School Journal, Practical Teacher, Teachers Institute, Teachers Magazine, and School and Society. Twenty-three different titles were a part of the study since each of the journal chains represents both title changes and mergers. Figures 1 and 2 diagram the "family trees" of the selected periodicals. (INSERT FIGURES 1 & 2 HERE)

The Union List of Serials was used to determine library locations of the volumes. Complete collections of the general journals are widely available both in bound volumes and on microfilm; volumes of the device journals are incomplete, difficult to locate, and have not been put on microfilm. Facilities at the Library of Congress and the Research Library of the National Institute of Education in Washington D.C. were used because of their extensive collections of device journals. All available issues of each title were examined in sequence whenever

possible in order to follow series of articles and to observe changes in format or emphasis. Altogether 422 articles (and 1,090 discussions of methods of teaching English) were identified and described using content analysis.

Research Design

A content analysis research design based upon a model in Holsti's Content Analysis for the Social Sciences and the Humanities was used to structure the study. (1969, p. 30)



In the research design, A = general journals, B = device journals, content variable x = methods of teaching English appearing in the journals, Ax = methods appearing in general journals, Bx = methods appearing in device journals, Differences = a comparison of the characteristics of methods appearing in general and device journals.

Content Analysis Instrument

The instrument developed for this study was constructed to reflect Bernard Berelson's definition of content analysis: "a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication." (1952, p. 18) Three major units for description were identified: Content Units (the educational periodicals containing articles on teaching English); Context Units (the articles within which the discussions appeared); Recording Units (specific discussions of methods of teaching English).

In order to make the eventual descriptions of teaching methods objective and systematic, a series of subcategories were developed for each of the three major units. The Content Unit, required full identification of the periodical and a classification of it as either "general" or "device." The Context Unit required (1) full identification of the article; (2) a description of its form as editorial, a multiparagraph item where teaching methods received primary emphasis (Article MP) or secondary emphasis (Article MS), as a lesson, or as a brief item used as a filler (note); (3) a description of the item as one primarily conveying information (didactic) or providing instructions (pragmatic). The Recording Unit, a single discussion of a method of teaching English (more than one of which could appear within an article) required five descriptions: (1) a description of its form as one paragraph or less (limited) or two paragraphs or more (extended); (2) a designation of the "direction" of the item as implicit, a suggestion, or explicit; (3) a description of the primary subject of the discussion; (4) a description of the nature of the method as being teacher-centered, text-centered, or student-centered; and (5) a simplified restatement of the method. Figure 3 illustrates the analysis of an item which appeared in an 1881 issue of Journal of Education. (INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE)

During the reading of the articles it became apparent that additional categories emerging from the material itself more specifically described the actual methods categorized by the quantitative analysis. The 1,090 recording units grouped

themselves naturally into five different categories: statements (1) on the selection of materials to be taught, (2) on the aim or goal of the teaching, (3) on the style or manner of presentation, (4) on the proceudres of classroom presentation, (5) on procedures for evaluation. These categories became important in the discussion of the findings.

Reliability and Validity

Once category definitions have been developed so they clearly define the set, both Berelson and Holsti comment that content validity is not a problem in content analysis. (Berelson, 1952, p. 169; Holsti, 1969, p. 142)

Two types of consistency contribute to the objectivity of content analysis: consistency over a period of time, and consistency among a number of analysts. (Berelson, 1952, p. 172) Two passages representing 34 coding decisions were selected to be used in determining the first type of reliability, rater reliability over time. The same categories were used on the same content by this researcher with a two-week interval between the first and second ratings. A widely applied coefficient of reliability suggested by Holsti was used to determine the coefficient of reliability: the number of coding decisions where there is agreement is divided by the total number of coding decisions. The coefficient of reliability for a single rater over time was 0.94.

$$C.R. = 2(32) / 34 + 34 = 0.94$$

The resulting 0.94 is above the 0.90 cited by Berelson as an area of "concentration" for reliability statistics in studies and

experiments he reviewed. (p. 172)

The second type of reliability, category reliability, is a measure of the precision of the category descriptions. Neither Holsti nor Berelson discuss the determination of category reliability in studies such as this one where a single rater is used, but they do comment that too few content analysis studies include reliability data. (Holsti, 1969, p. 149; Berelson, 1952, p. 172) Although a team of raters was not used in collecting the data for this study, a category-reliability coefficient was determined in order to objectively substantiate the clarity of the categories.

Three groups of 5 different individuals participated in determining category reliability. The results of the tests with the first 2 groups of raters were used to assist the researcher in making the category descriptions more precise; the results of the test with the third group yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.79 using the same formula applied to the test for rater reliability over time. The same two passages with 34 coding decisions were used, and the coding decisions of the 5 raters and the researcher were tabulated.

$$C.R. = 6(27) / 6(34) = 0.7941$$

The 0.79 coefficient was determined to be an acceptable indication of the precision of the category definitions. The disagreements that did occur among raters were all in two major subdivisions. Following the test, raters indicated that a prior discussion of the descriptions and the use of examples would have enabled them to match the times more consistently with the

categories. Written descriptions of the categories had been given to raters, but no prior training had occured. Berelson indicates that studies have shown that "training prior to coding can significantly increase the level of intercoder agreement." (p. 135) Should this instrument be used in a study involving multiple raters, prior training of raters should increase the coefficient of category reliability.

Findings

Device Journals. The 4 device journals selected for examination involved 12 different titles. The journals themselves used the terms "methods" and "devices" to describe the bulk of their contents, and took pains to assure potential readers that each issue was a classroom necessity. In a 1900 advertisement, Practical Teacher editors wrote, "This paper teems with suggestions that will assit the teacher . . .increase skill in teaching . . . arouse the teachers to possess new ideas." 158 articles in the device journals were identified as being aimed at secondary school English teachers; within these articles, 323 discussions of methods were analyzed. Table 1 summarizes the analysis. (INSERT TABLE 1 HERE)

Most of the 158 presentation on methods of teaching English in the device journals were in the form of articles; the presentations were both didactic and pragmatic. The 323 individual discussions of methods within these articles were both limited (less than one paragraph) and extended (more than one paragraph). Most of the methods were either suggested in a general manner or presented explicity with clear directions and

examples. Forty percent of these discussions focused on the teaching of literature, and 23 and 25 percent focused respectively on the teaching of language and composition. Discussions of methods that emphasized the use of the text or class materials appeared in 39 percent of the items; those emphasizing the student's participation or response appeared in 32 percent of the items; methods that focused on the teacher's role appeared in 29 percent of the items. The majority of the 323 methodological suggestions presented the reader with specific procedures (primarily centered on the course text) for the presentation of materials in the classroom.

Most of these text-centered recommendations involved the teaching of literature. The discussions of methods directed teachers to have students memorize, outline, recite, paraphrase, analyze, read and list. The teacher was directed to drill, annotate, and explicate. Ouline series and procedural articles stressed concentration on the background and details of a piece of literature,other articles debated the merits of such study. Some authors encouraged the teacher to have students study a text intensively ("the allusions, times, background are a means to a fuller comprehension"), others directed them to avoid teaching through manuals, paraphrasing, references and reviews because this resulted in only limited reading of the works themselves. (Ray, 1887, p. 462, 368)

In text-centered discussions of the teaching of composition, teachers were told to dictate, and students were directed to imitate and copy. These discussions were closely tied to the

recommendations for the teaching of language: diagram, analyze, and parse. Lengthy articles were published that contained detailed explanations of grammar, diagramming, and sentence analysis for the uninformed teacher. Some articles and lessons proclaimed that parsing sentences would "train the mind in orderly thinking" (Davis, 1900, p. 76) and "build psychological facilities" (Patrick, 1904 pp. 189-91) and others likened this procedure to building a bologna sandwich (the "sausage-linking method" and claimed that the combination of "parsing" and "analysis" led to "Paralysis." (Brown, 1886, p. 408; Hinsdale, 1887 p. 135)

Most student-centered suggestions were related to the teaching of composition. Teachers were told to let their students talk about composition topics in order to formulate their ideas before writing; to base assignments on student interests and opinions; to have students keep private journals, edit each other's papers, write class themes, select various audiences for their papers, enter writing contests, "publish" their own books, and write stories for children in elementary grades. In addition to articles that lauded imitation, there were instances where the teacher was encouraged to "teach a systematic arrangement of ideas in regard to writing in general" but then "upon this foundation (to) let the student measure his own work, and decide what is the proper thing to say, and what words he will use to express the thoughts that should be put into words." (Greenwood, 1902, p. 99)

A few student-centered suggestions were made that encouraged

students to interact with a piece of literature they were studying. Teachers were told to let students organize birthday parties for authors, theme parties following the completion of a unit, and to design book covers. A student's own personal reaction to a piece of literature was of little concern to the writers of articles in device journals. Only a few mentioned any value in having students explore their own reactions rather than ingesting the annotations and opinions of others. Only one article dared suggest that students explain what they considered to be the most beautiful passages in a literary work and directed the teacher not to comment or ask for explanations because "everyone has different reasons." (E.S.P., 1898, p. 542)

The teacher-centered suggestions on classroom procedures were few, but varied. For composition--keep files of student writing (Jenkins, 1904, pp. 197-206); illustrate the actual grading of a paper in front of the class (Johnston, 1905, pp. 123-24); plan for interclass criticism by having freshmen exchange papers with juniors and develop a series of questions to help students evaluate each other's papers (Bolenius, 1912, pp. 414-15); and use examples of student papers "to furnish interest and suggest lines along which the mind of the student can find its way." (Dye, 1902, p. 480) For literature--ask leading questions to prepare their interest and intellect for the next assignment (Cruzan, 1913 pp. 559-61) and remember that "a sense of appreciation...is never reached by the soul-killing method of analysis and dissection." (Morgan, 1907, p. 217)

The items discussing evluation of student work were mostly

cautionary. Teachers were told to refrain from elaborate criticism, and the overcorrection of "undeveloped thought" was likened to "mental watermelon stealing." (Powers,1895, p. 140) Suggestions were made on what could be used for purposes of testing and evaluation: poetry could be used to evaluate a student's readiness in literature, language, and composition; student words could be used on exams in spelling and language; one short and one long essay could be used for the culmination of literature study. Diagramming, which some advocated as a teaching technique, others labeled as a "stupendous fraud" that could be used successfully as a testing device rather than for learning. ("Diagramming," 1889, p. 304) And two procedures were suggested to improve the evaluation of composition:

- The poorest method is to write...with red ink in the margin, instead, put a check on the line containing the error, then have another pupil supply the correction. (Hathaway, 1893, p. 74)
- A month of oral criticism, pencil in hand and pupil at elbow, is far more advantageous to both the teacher and the taught than a year's criticism by means of marginal notes and references. (Read, 1902, p. 448)

General Journals. The 6 general journals selected for examination involved 8 different titles. The journals themselves used a variety of terms more to describe their mission than their content. Overall, they sought to provide "students of education" with "philosophy," "a record," and "a review" and "to make a contribution": "We wish to arouse teachers from their lethargic

slumber...and make them feel that there is such a thing as a science of eduation." (Editorial, 1906, pp. 4-6) 264 articles in the general journals were identified as being aimed at secondary school English teachers; within these articles, 767 individual discussions of methods were analyzed. Table 2 summarizes the results of this analysis. (INSERT TABLE 2 HERE)

Most of the 264 presentations were in the form of articles; three-fourths were didactic. Most of the 767 discussions were presented as suggestions for teaching (rather than with explicit instructions) and were limited to one paragraph or less. Only 30 percent of the discussions provided direct examples of methods. The greatest percentage of items related to the teaching of literature, followed in order by suggestions for composition and language teaching. The discussions of methods most often focused on the teacher's role in selecting and presenting class materials, but a nearly equal number emphasized the use of a text. The majority of the suggestions presented the reader with specific procedures for the presentation of materials in the classroom (these procedures were primarily centered on the course text).

Most of the text-centered recommendations involved the teaching of literature. The discussions of methods directed teachers to have students memorize, outline, recite, paraphrase, analyze, read, list, classify, and generalize. The teacher was directed to "hunt out all classical allusions" (Gage, 1887, pp. 166-71); to instruct "through intensity" (Davidson, 1892, p. 580); and to make a variety of assignments that would allow

students to "develop literary appreciation and faculty of expression." (Simons, 1901 p. 452) The assignments were varied: outlines, compositions, research papers, and speeches, Students were to study the author (personality, background, friends, personal life, influences, syntax), the characters (motives, nationalities, characteristics), and the literary piece itself (and its whole, its parts, its sentences, its structure, other work by the same author, similar work by other authors, and work written during the same period). In some suggestions the text became the center of a classroom game. During "Mystery," for instance, it was suggested that students circulate copies of their favorite quotes without identifying the authors or the sources, and the student who filled in the greatest number of blanks won. (Thurber, 1891 pp. 485-98)

In the text-centered discussions of composition, teachers were directed to provide models, and students were told to imitate and copy. Student's inability to write on topics of their own choosing was explained:

- Since self-consciousness is usually at this time too great too admit easy expression, written expression should be largely reproduction, with perhaps one fourth of the amount the expression of original ideas. (Street, 1898, p. 178)
- It is premature to assume...that there is any individuality as a writer that is worth developing except through the constant influence of good models. (Greene, 1893 p. 554)

The text-centered suggestions for the teaching of language primarily involved the manipulation of words from a literature text. Turning prose into poetry and poetry into prose was intended to make students aware of the complexities of language choice; substituting synonyms for the words of an author was to provide a model; rearranging sentences in a novel was to teach relationships. The debate about teaching technical grammar filled many articles: parse (don't parse), drill (advice), memorize (understand), don't parse (parse). The circularity of the methods continued throughout the thirty years despite agreement on the aim: to improve the expression of thought.

Most of the student-centered procedures were related to the teaching of composition. Teachers were told to base assignments on student interests and opinions; to have students keep private journals; to help them discover their own errors, to use their powers of observation ("show your boys a sunset"), to select an audience, to edit each other's papers.

A number of student-centered suggestions encouraged students to respond to a piece of literature and to combine the literary character's experiences in some way with their own. The teacher was reminded to help students ask themselves, "What does this mean to me?" in order to assist them in the "turning in of literary sensations." (Thomas, 1910 pp. 82-98) Another group of suggestions involved the setting up of programs for outside reading. Reading surveys were suggested to help teachers learn about what student interests and experiences. Book report forms ranging from lengthy questionnaires to recipe-type cards

whereupon students would write brief responses and then make them available for teachers and other students. On language teaching there was one major student-centered recommendation: let the need for the explanation and study of language rules grow out of student experiences. (Cole, 1906,pp. 469-83)

Teacher-centered suggestions for classroom procedures were numerous in general journals. For composition, most such discussions encouraged the teacher to select topics for the students: concrete and specific assignments help the pupil hold himself within definite limits and encourage clearness of thought and expression (Mumford, 1908 p. 536); give them topics to aid their "immature minds" (Bronson, 1889 pp. 384-95); when making assignments, abstract topics put you in "danger of paralyzing the young mind." (Shutey, 1891 p. 142) One writer suggested that the teacher remember that the student has a choice in writing or not writing: "It is advisable to encourage pupils to write, but not always safe to compel them to write when they have nothing to say." (Colvin, 1906, p. 419)

In the teaching of literature, the teacher was cautioned about using historical notes about a literary work ("perhaps our zeal as teachers leads us astray"), to vary the approach to literature, and to stress the "spiritual value of (its) humor." ("On Making," 1888, p. 390; Clark, 1901, pp. 485-96) While one series of articles emphasized the importance of intensive study (so students can use literary pieces as "points of orientation"), another group encouraged extensive reading (to promote "flexible taste" and a "love of literature"). (Editorial, Journal of

Pedagogy, October 1889, p. 25-6; "Radical Change," 1905, p. 87) Supplemental reading was the topic of a few suggestions, including one that would have teachers survey the outside reading habits of their pupils in order to be prepared to "correct (their) vicious tastes," (Halsey, 1889. p. 395)

The items that presented procedures for evaluation of student work were primarily related to composition. Teachers were told to hold conferences with pupils, to assign essay examinations in all subjects, and to devise a shorthand system for coding and tabulating student errors. Some broad cautions were included also that reminded teachers to base their criticisms on student needs (Cole, 1906, pp. 469-83) and to point out but let pupils correct errors ("the student should never be relieved from the necessity of thinking"). (Clark, 1901, p. 373) Some suggestions were contradictory: use peer evaluation (don't); have students revise papers after you have evaluated them (have revisions completed before a final evaluation); grade everything ("perhaps most of them (compositions) should go into the wastebasket unread"). (Hitchcock, 1904, p. 351) In the midst of the controversy and contradictions, one teacher reminded colleagues that "real life holds no examinations in grammar and rhetoric, but demands correct and agreeable speech." (Thurber, 1896, p. 10)

Discussion

Overall, the device journals did not appear to acknowledge much of the confusion surrounding the methods of teaching English apparent in the histories of the period. The methods were

presented rather than explained or rationalized, usually with information about the method's effects in the classroom. If looking only at the most pragmatic of the lessons, one could be misled to believe that the stereotype of the hickory-stick-bearing schoolmarm found support for her methods within its issues. Had that schoolmarm or schoolmaster read more than the prepackaged lessons, they would have found an underlying concern for the student running through most of the components of the methods.

The editors of the device journals made it possible for a teacher who had never taught John Greenleaf Whittier's "Snowbound" to work through the poem line by line with students, explaining each allusion, each reference, and each vocabulary word. (Bolenius, 1912, pp. 256-60) Editors of general journals cited just such "devices" as support for their view that journals in this class contributed little other than recipes for the starving teacher (while the general journals claimed they provided the "food"). Upon closer examination, however, it is evident that the device journals did go beyond supplying rote materials and did make an effort to educate as well as placate their readers.

Overall, the general journals present a detailed picture of the confusion and controversies that were a part of the emergence of English as a major subject of study in the nation's secondary schools. The methods were explained, rationalized, and debated rather than presented directly for classroom practice. If only looking at the most didactic of the articles, one could be misled

to believe that a practicing teacher would have found few recommendations regarding the actual process of teaching English to students. Had a teacher read more than just the lengthy philosophic articles or reports of research and surveys, he or she would have found a series of recommendations on how to structure student learning.

The editors of the general journals made it possible for a teacher to read a 9 page article on developing literary taste in students, replete with foreign words and phrases, few specific examples, and written by a professor at Yale. (MacLaughlin, 1893, pp. 17-26) Editors of device journals cited just such "generalities" as support for their view that journals in this class contributed little of a practical nature to classroom teachers. Upon closer examination, however, it is evident that the journals did go beyond supplying didactic treatises and did provide teachers with applicable suggestions for ways to improve the teaching of a specific lesson.

They author of an article in Education characterized what sometimes happened in the lengthy articles in general journals: "Pedagogic discussion is often like beating carpets: if the subject really excites active consideration one is likely in the resulting dust to lose sight of the original fabric and to experience only intellectual strangulation." (Hitchcock, 1904, p. 351) While subscribers to the general journals may have, in the "dust" of these discussions, temporarily lost sight of the most immediate needs, the editors of the device journals were close at hand to provide "a manual . . . indispensable to those who would

be successful in the classroom." The contributions of these two categories of journals were different, but complimentary.

Conclusion

In 1895 the principal of a New Hampshire high school discussed the influence that educational periodicals had on teachers and predicted, "The time will come when all teachers at the beginning of their work will possess such a wide range of general and professional culture that the journal devoted to their specific grade and work will suffice for them." (Rounds, p. 811) Prior to the publication of English Journal, those charged with teaching English did have a wealth of "English journalism" from which to gain information about methodology. It is no coincidence that accounts of methods like sentence-combining, peer editing, publication of student writing, role-playing, and thematic unit-building can be found within in these general and device journals; the classroom teachers who were a part of the formalization of this "fabulous monster," the school subject English, shared our concern about seeking effective and meaningful ways to teach literature, language and composition. When reading through device journals for something to do on Monday, these English teachers were reminded that "we are the teachers of human beings before (we are) the teachers of rhetoric." (Perry, 1900, p. 229)

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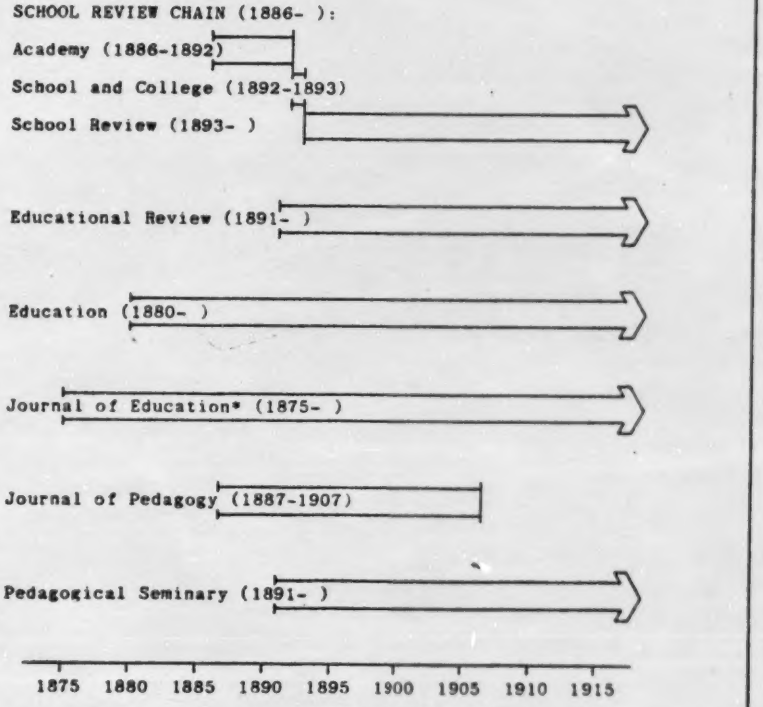
SCHOOL REVIEW CHAIN (1886-):
Academy (1886-1892)
School and College (1892-1893)
School Review (1893-)
Educational Review (1891-)
Education (1880-)
Journal of Education* (1875-)
Journal of Pedagogy (1887-1907)
Pedagogical Seminary (1891-)
1875 1880 1885 1890 1895 1900 1905 1910 1915

Fig. 1. Timeline of general journals under study.

*First known as New England Journal of Education, it began in 1875 with the merger of Maine Journal of Education, Massachusetts Teacher, Rhode Island Schoolmaster, Connecticut School Journal, and College Courant. In 1885 it absorbed Educational Weekly.

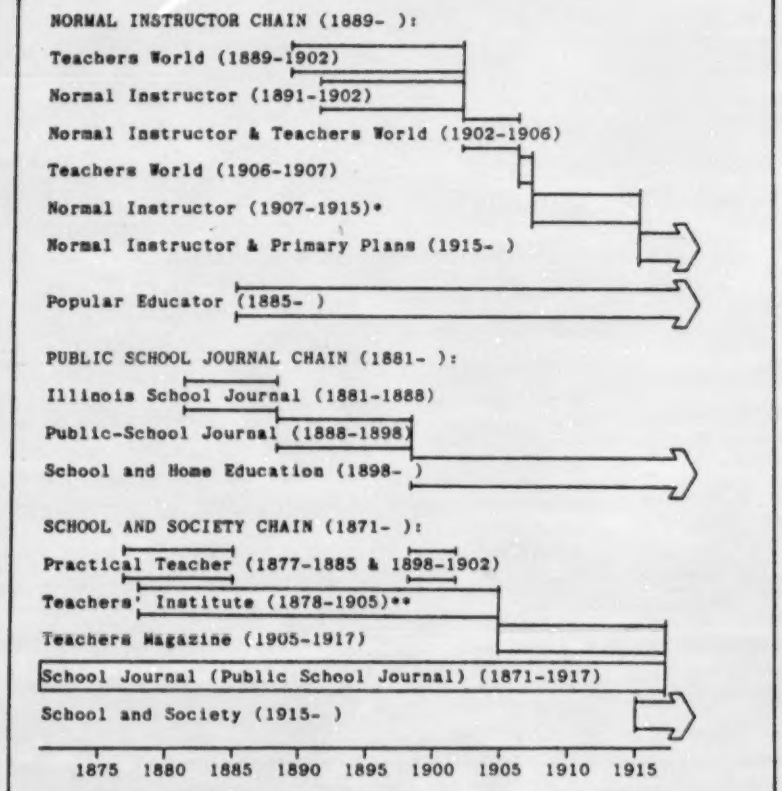
NORMAL INSTRUCTOR CHAIN (1889-):
Teachers World (1889-1902)
Normal Instructor (1891-1902)
Normal Instructor & Teachers World (1902-1906)
Teachers World (1906-1907)
Normal Instructor (1907-1915)*
Normal Instructor & Primary Plans (1915-)
Popular Educator (1885-)
PUBLIC SCHOOL JOURNAL CHAIN (1881-):
Illinois School Journal (1881-1888)
Public-School Journal (1888-1898)
School and Home Education (1898-)
SCHOOL AND SOCIETY CHAIN (1871-):
Practical Teacher (1877-1885 & 1898-1902)
Teachers' Institute (1878-1905)**
Teachers Magazine (1905-1917)
School Journal (Public School Journal) (1871-1917)
School and Society (1915-)
1875 1880 1885 1890 1895 1900 1905 1910 1915

Fig. 2. Timeline of device journals under study.

*An elementary journal, Primary Plans, joined Normal Instructor in 1915.

**Three elementary journals, Primary School Era, Primary School, and Intelligence joined Teachers' Institute in 1905 and the title changed to Teachers Magazine.

Item

"Language-Teaching. It is now almost universally conceded that time spent below the high schools in teaching technical grammar, is time absolutely wasted. This learning of definitions, this parsing and analyzing, have no result commensurate with the time and pains expended. Many of our best teachers have seen this for years; have put it in print; have proved it at Teachers' Institutes. Why, then, do we keep on in the same ruts? Why not teach our pupils to speak by speaking; to write by writing? Why not apply that common sense axiom, that the way to do a thing is to go ahead and do it?" (Journal of Education 14 [September 22, 1881]:183)

Analysis

I. CONTENT UNIT		
Identification	General	Device
Journal of Education, 8/22/1881	X	

II. CONTEXT UNIT							
	Form					Direction	
Identification	Editorial	Article MP	Article MS	Lesson	Note	Didactic	Pragmatic
"Language Teaching"					X	X	

III. RECORDING UNIT											
Form		Direction			Subject				Nature		
Limited	Extended	Implicit	Suggested	Explicit	Lt	Lg	Cp	Gn	TC	TxC	SC
X			X			X					X

Summary/description
Students should be taught to "write by writing" rather than through the memorization of technical grammar rules.

Fig. 3. Example of content analysis developed for this study.

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTICS OF METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH APPEARING IN DEVICE JOURNALS, 1886 TO 1917

Characteristic	Percentage of All Presentations
Form of articles (N=158):	
Editorial	0.03
Article--methods primary	0.44
Article--methods secondary	0.39
Lesson	0.10
Note	0.04
Direction of articles:	
Didactic	0.53
Pragmatic	0.47
Form of discussions (N=323):	
Limited	0.52
Extended	0.48
Direction of discussions:	
Implicit	0.02
Suggested	0.49
Explicit	0.49
Subject of discussions:	
Literature	0.40
Language	0.23
Composition	0.25
General	0.12
Nature of discussions:	
Teacher-centered	0.29
Text-centered	0.39
Student-centered	0.32
Categories of discussions:	
Selection of materials	0.12
Aim or goal in teaching	0.05
Manner of presentation	0.11
Procedures for presentation	0.68
Teacher-centered	0.12
Text-centered	0.58
Student-centered	0.30
Procedures for evaluation	0.05

TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF CHARACTERISTICS OF METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH APPEARING IN GENERAL JOURNALS, 1886 TO 1917

Characteristic	Percentage of All Presentations
Form of articles (N=264):	
Editorial	0.07
Article--methods primary	0.30
Article--methods secondary	0.60
Lesson	0.03
Note	0.00
Direction of articles:	
Didactic	0.77
Pragmatic	0.23
Form of discussions (N=323):	
Limited	0.71
Extended	0.29
Direction of discussions:	
Implicit	0.01
Suggested	0.67
Explicit	0.32
Subject of discussions:	
Literature	0.54
Language	0.14
Composition	0.24
General	0.08
Nature of discussions:	
Teacher-centered	0.44
Text-centered	0.40
Student-centered	0.16
Categories of discussions:	
Selection of materials	0.15
Aim or goal in teaching	0.08
Manner of presentation	0.13
Procedures for presentation	0.58
Teacher-centered	0.24
Text-centered	0.56
Student-centered	0.20
Procedures for evaluation	0.06